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Special: MANAGING THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

by Robert S. McNamara, *Secretary of Defense*

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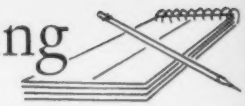
Worth Noting



FURTHER GAINS by Negroes and members of other minority groups in the Federal service were revealed by a study completed in June 1963. Negro employment, worldwide, reached a new high of 301,889, up 3 percent from June 1962. In grades GS–12 through 18, Negroes filled nearly 2,000 positions for a 40 percent gain over June 1962. In grades 9 through 11 they held roughly 7,000 jobs, for a 1-year gain of nearly 20 percent.

Spanish-speaking employees numbered nearly 52,000 in June 1963, up 2 percent over the previous year. At salary levels of $8,000 and higher their increase was nearly 120 employees, or about 75 percent.

American Indians in seven selected States totaled nearly 11,000 or 2.7 percent of Federal employment, an increase of 19 percent.

■

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION is considering a pair of proposals designed to streamline Federal recruiting and examining procedures and to simplify the process by which a citizen applies for a civil service job. One proposal calls for creation of Interagency Boards of Examiners and Interagency Job Information Centers at principal locations throughout the Nation, to eliminate duplication, cut costs, and provide better service. The other proposal would establish career rosters to facilitate interagency use, transfer, and promotion of well-qualified employees in the upper levels. Both proposals, now under discussion with Federal agencies, stem from a broad CSC staff study of the Commission's total examining and recruiting program.

CLOSER HARMONY between Government's personnel and safety functions has been recommended by CSC Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., as a means of reducing on-the-job accidents. He urged the Federal Safety Council to take the initiative in a movement to bring the two functions closer together.

Among the areas of personnel administration he cited as having a direct bearing on safety were: job analysis, qualification standards, selection, placement, training, and performance evaluation.

A LEGISLATIVE PROPOSAL that would authorize Federal agencies to pay for more of the moving costs when employees are relocated for the convenience of the Government has been sent to Congress by the Civil Service Commission.

The proposal seeks to amend the Administrative Expenses Act of 1946. It provides authority to increase the maximum weight limit of transported household goods, liberalize travel expenses of the employee's immediate family, pay their subsistence expenses as well as the employee's own for up to a month, and reimburse employees who move to isolated posts in this country for up to 3 years' storage of household goods. New maximum weight limit of household goods under the proposal would be 11,000 pounds, up nearly 60 percent from the present 7,000-pound limit.

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover)

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Managing the

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

by ROBERT S. McNAMARA
Secretary of Defense

WHEN THE PRESIDENT first asked that I accept appointment as the Secretary of Defense in his Cabinet, my immediate reaction was to question my own competency. I had very little experience in the Government—no experience at the level to which the President proposed to appoint me. Even my limited exposure to the workings of the Pentagon as an officer in the headquarters of the then Army Air Force during World War II was some 15 years behind me.

What was the climate in the Pentagon? What kind of a job was being the Secretary of Defense? Could I—or for that matter could anyone—truly manage the Department of Defense?

I expressed my doubts to the President and seriously questioned whether he would be wise in making the appointment.

The President said he was not aware of any school for cabinet officers.

It was after this that I called upon my predecessor, the Honorable Thomas S. Gates, Jr. Mr. Gates briefed me thoroughly on his own experience as Secretary of Defense. I learned that he first came into office as Under Secretary of the Navy in the Defense Department in 1953, just after a committee headed by Nelson Rockefeller had examined the powers of the Secretary of Defense and reported to Congress, as follows:

> "The Secretary of Defense has by statute full and complete authority over the Department of Defense, all its agencies, subdivisions and personnel subject only to the President. . . . There are no separately administered preserves in the Department of Defense. . . . The Secretaries of the Military Departments, the Joint Chiefs of Staff, all officers and other personnel are *under* the Secretary

of Defense. . . . His power extends to all affairs and activities of the Department of Defense."

Counsel for the Rockefeller Committee observed: "It remains only to sweep away the annoying challenges to that authority from time to time."

During his 6 years as Under Secretary and Secretary of the Navy, and thereafter during his 2 years as Deputy Secretary and Secretary of Defense, Mr. Gates had worked to establish the sort of control that Congress had authorized.

But just what did this control really involve? We have some 3,700,000 people in the Department of Defense—2,700,000 in uniform and 1,000,000 civilian employees—located all over the world. The Department spends over $50 billion a year—over half of the Federal Government budget. Its inventory of real property and equipment is worth over $150 billion. Its major installations—some 600 of them in the United States alone—are in reality municipalities with all of the housing, the utilities systems, maintenance and transportation requirements, policing needs, and schools and hospitals typical of our small cities. The Department operates, for support of its forces, airlines, shipping lines, a communication system, supply distribution systems, and maintenance establishments, each of which represents a major management task in its own right. It procures annually over four million different items of equipment and supplies.

The sheer magnitude of the task as it unfolded made me question again whether I or anyone could really manage the Department.

On reflection, it became clear that either of two broad philosophies of management could be followed by a Secretary of Defense. He could play an essentially passive role—a judicial role. In this role the Secretary would make the decisions required of him by law by approving recommendations made to him. On the other hand, the Secretary of Defense could play an active role providing aggressive leadership—questioning, suggesting alternatives, proposing objectives, and stimulating progress. This active role represents my own philosophy of management. In talking with Mr. Gates and thinking about his experiences, I became convinced that there was room for and need of this kind of management philosophy in the Department of Defense.

"I would not, if I could, attempt to substitute analytical techniques for judgment based upon experience."

In my preparation I read a report published the previous month by Senator Henry Jackson's Subcommittee. It recommended "more vigorous implementation of the broad powers already vested in the Secretary of Defense." I knew full well that this view was not unanimously shared either in or out of the Pentagon.

THE CREATION of the Department of Defense resulted from the clear recognition that separate land, sea, and air warfare is gone forever. The National Security Act of 1947 and its various amendments, down through the Department of Defense Reorganization Act of 1958, established the Department and the basis for its operations. Changes in the overall organization and in the character and disposition of our military forces have taken place on an evolutionary basis in response to Congressional action represented by this legislation. In essence, the three military departments (the Army, the Navy [including the Marines], and the Air Force) have been preserved as separate organizational entities to train, supply, and support the land, sea, and air forces. The forces for the most part, however, are assigned to unified and specified combatant commands, the commanders of which by law exercise full operational command of the forces assigned to them.

The function of these commands was to carry out wartime strategic missions assigned to them by the President through the Secretary of Defense and the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The ultimate responsibility rests with the President. Immediate command of the forces is in the hands of the unified and specified commanders subject to the instructions issued by the President. I, as Secretary of Defense, act as agent for the President.

As I saw it, the changes which had been made since 1947 had recognized two highly significant facts. First, it is clear that our international political problems and our military problems are now indivisible. On the one hand we have global commitments growing out of our position of world leadership. On the other, the vast strides made in communications and means of transportation have shrunk both the time and distance factors which influence our relationships throughout the world. The need is for a capability to react quickly with both strength and restraint. The importance of any action

"I have encouraged the Joint Chiefs of Staff to express themselves openly and free of the restraints of their service connections in the interest of the soundest possible defense program."

which the United States may take anywhere in the world is so great that it must be carefully considered and decided upon at the highest levels of our Government. Second, it is equally clear that the role of the Joint Chiefs of Staff has significantly changed. No longer is their influence greatest as chiefs of their respective Services. Rather, as members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in the command channel from the President to the Unified and Specified Commanders, their greatest influence is in the strategic dispositions and employment of our combined forces deployed throughout the world.

Each of these changes was fundamental to the relationships of the leadership in the Department of Defense. Each necessitated a rethinking of old concepts and a new approach to traditional ways of doing things.

THE PRESIDENT'S CHARGE to me was a two-pronged one—to determine what forces were required and to procure and support them as economically as possible. As I have described, this had to be done in an atmosphere of necessary change already in process. The decisions required were and are numerous, complex, and of the greatest importance. But the mechanism of decision-making left something to be desired from my viewpoint—the viewpoint of active managership.

We had to begin with a thorough reexamination and analysis of the contingencies we might face worldwide. I considered that we were too slow to develop the alternatives and the decisions as to the numbers and types of forces we really needed.

Our problems of choice among alternatives in strategy and in weapons systems have been complicated enormously by the bewildering array of entirely workable alternative courses which our technology can support. We believe the Nation can afford whatever investment in national security is necessary. The difficult question is "What is required?" It is far more difficult to build a defense program on this kind of foundation than it is to set a budget ceiling and then squeeze into it whatever programs you can. However difficult, this is exactly what we set out to do.

We first took a major step forward in the development of our planning, programing, and budget process.

To be really meaningful the defense program must be looked at in its entirety with each of its elements considered in light of the total program. This can only be done at the Department of Defense level. For example, the size of the POLARIS force cannot be determined in terms of the Navy shipbuilding program or even the entire Navy program, but can be validly judged only in relation to all of the other elements of the Strategic Retaliatory Forces—the B–52's, the ATLAS, the TITAN, and the MINUTEMAN ICBM's. Similarly, the requirement for Air Force tactical fighters cannot be determined independently of the requirement for Army ground forces.

To make such a review a reality, a 5-year program was devised presenting the proposed force structure and cost projections in terms of the principal missions of the Defense Department.

In our approach we show just what we are planning to spend on each mission, such as for the strategic retaliatory forces, continental air and missile defenses, general purpose forces (primarily for limited wars), research and development, etc. These categories are further broken down into individual systems and projects. For each

mission, you can see how many planes we plan to have, how much investment is involved, what the expected operating costs are, how many personnel are involved. In each case, competing programs and systems are judged on the basis of their contribution to the mission to be accomplished and to the Defense effort as a whole. Balance within a given program and within the entire effort is sought, always with a single overriding objective—the defense of the Nation.

The judgment inherent in this balancing of programs and systems can no longer be intuitive or rely on past experience alone. The range of choice is too broad; the number and type of alternatives too great.

In the selection of weapon systems, in the design of forces, and in determination of the level of the national defense effort, therefore, we are making greater use of a technique called *systems analysis*. Perhaps it is best described as "quantitative common sense."

Systems analysis takes a complex problem and sorts out the tangle of factors. It aims to assist the decision-maker by furnishing him with quantitative estimates of the effectiveness and costs of each of the alternative courses which he could choose. Confronting a multiplicity of options we have turned to analytical techniques to assist us in our choice.

These were two of the primary management tools we put to work—a mission-oriented planning and programming process to assist in defining and balancing the total effort, and systems analysis to assist in the selection of specific weapons systems and courses of action from among potential alternatives. But management tools and techniques are only that—they assist, but *only* assist, in the decision-making process.

I am sure that no significant military problem will ever be *wholly* susceptible to purely quantitative analysis. But every piece of the total problem that can be quantitatively analyzed removes one more piece of uncertainty from our process of making a choice. There are many factors which cannot be adequately quantified and which therefore must be supplemented with judgment seasoned by experience. Furthermore, experience is necessary to determine the relevant questions with which to proceed with any analysis.

I would not, if I could, attempt to substitute analytical techniques for judgment based upon experience. The very development and use of those techniques have placed an even greater premium on that experience and judgment, as issues have been clarified and basic problems exposed to dispassionate examination. The better the factual basis for reflective judgment, the better the judgment is likely to be. The need to provide that factual basis is the reason for emphasizing the analytical technique.

THERE HAS BEEN some intimation, I know, that I have usurped the decision-making prerogatives of our military leaders. I think they would be the first to say that this is not so. To the contrary, I have encouraged the Joint Chiefs of Staff to express themselves openly and free of the restraints of their service connections in the interest of the soundest possible defense program for the country. My effort has been to provide to our military leaders and my civilian associates, through every scientific, technical, and management tool available, the best factual basis for judgment which can be produced. But then, that very judgment born of experience must be brought into play.

"I have no hesitancy in making the required decisions, always, of course, subject to the approval of the President."

On many major issues, backgrounds of varied experience lead to different judgments and conclusions as to the best course of action. I am gratified that this is the case! Too often has honest difference been resolved by compromise in the interest of unanimity with the result that the strongest elements favoring each position are lost in the process. The accumulation of individual and collective judgments, however, cannot be substituted for decision. It can only facilitate it, if the philosophy of active management is to be followed. In some cases service interests are involved inevitably. The judgments brought to bear reflect experiences characteristic of the historic viewpoints of particular services. These cases are rare, fortunately, but when they occur they are fraught with controversy. In such circumstances the decision must be mine. Obviously, a decision made in these circumstances cannot satisfy every differing viewpoint—it cannot please every protagonist—but it must be made. I am charged by law with the decision-making responsibility—and I have no hesitancy in making the required decisions, always, of course, subject to the approval of the President.

We must encourage honest differences in views in our deliberations. The exposing of differences and examination of the argumentation supporting these differing views provide the insight necessary for wise decisions—and the times demand the wisest decisions which can be made. It goes without saying, perhaps, that once a decision has been made we all must close ranks and support it.

My constant association with the Joint Chiefs of Staff and my frequent contacts with our senior commanders

have served to heighten my admiration for them and their staffs—our military colleagues. Their dedication and ability are unquestioned. The perception and insight with which they approach questions of the gravest magnitude should be as great a source of satisfaction to every American as it is to me.

In my weekly discussions of major issues with the Joint Chiefs of Staff we are frank and candid in our expressions of views. The views of each of us, I know, are influenced by these discussions. Our direct contact is growing closer than that contact has ever been before between the Joint Chiefs of Staff and a Secretary of Defense. Before submitting my views to the Congress on any major issue, before making my annual program and budget presentation to the President and to Congress, and, in fact, before I submit a memorandum to the President on an important matter, I solicit, welcome, and consider the views of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. This is as it should be.

I should add that it is not uncommon to find adherents and opponents of a particular view both among my military advisors and my civilian advisors. Rarely, if ever, is there a division of views along military and civilian lines in the Defense Department—there is a consideration of views and judgments and a decision in the interest of the defense of the Nation.

WE HAVE HAD an immense buildup in the military strength of this country in the past 2½ years, but every major decision affecting it was born of controversy within the Defense Department—controversy in the sense of honest difference in views, that is.

During that period, we increased the number of warheads in our strategic nuclear alert forces by 100 percent. We increased the number of combat-ready Army divisions by 45 percent. We increased the number of tactical fighter wings by 30 percent; we increased the expenditures for new Navy ship construction to modernize the fleet by 100 percent. We increased by over 300 percent the size of the forces trained to counter the campaigns of subversion and covert aggression and guerrilla operations which the Communists are emphasizing. Note that the increases are widely different in size. Each of the decisions involved in achieving these increases was the subject of careful analytical evaluation and equally careful and soul-searching judgment—differences of opinion were encouraged to sharpen our focus on issues and help in reaching decision.

I am convinced that the defense program has moved ahead. I think we can appraise our progress in terms of the immediate combat-readiness and size of the forces we now have. I am fully aware that the application of my management philosophy—that of active management at the top—has caused some wrenching strains in the Department as new thought-patterns have been substituted for old. I am convinced, nevertheless, that the strains have been worth it and that the Department has taken on the vital outlook which I believed it should in the interest of the best defense for the Nation.

IT HAS BEEN SUGGESTED in some quarters that I am unwilling to decentralize decision-making authority. Nothing could be farther from the truth. I strongly believe in the pyramid nature of decision-making and that, within that frame, decision-making should be pushed to the lowest level in the organization that has the ability and information available to apply approved policy. The defense effort is entirely too big, too complex, and too geographically dispersed for its operations to be managed from a single control point. Our effort has been to create a framework of policy within which meaningful decentralization of operations can be accomplished. However, before we can effectively decentralize we must develop an organizational structure which will permit us to proceed to true decentralized decision-making rather than to management anarchy.

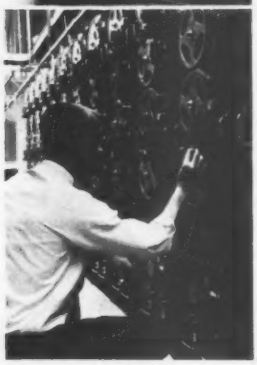
Too often responsibility and authority have been so fragmented by overlapping and diffused organizational arrangements within the Department as to make it virtually impossible to pinpoint responsibility. In such situations decentralization of decision-making authority is unwise if not impossible. As a matter of fact, in these circumstances decisions must be made at higher levels in the Department—often at the very top—because no one else has the clear authority to make them. The organization itself must be so structured as to clearly define the lines of authority and responsibility. We completed the development of the Defense Communications Agency which already had been set up and established additional Department-wide agencies such as the Defense Supply Agency and the Defense Intelligence Agency to accomplish exactly those purposes. This has permitted us to begin the decentralization of decision-making that we want.

Before I finish my tour of duty in the Department of Defense, I hope we will have established an approach to the job—a philosophy of management and a foundation of military security—that my successors will be able to build upon and strengthen. I think each large organization goes through a period of evaluation when the patterns of the future are formed, when the intellectual framework for decisions is established, when the administrative techniques are sharpened, when the organization structure takes shape. I believe that the Department of Defense is in such a period today.

WE HAVE EXPRESSED a management philosophy and developed a management concept which we are following, and from which we are trying to establish procedures. We believe the Department, the Congress, and the country will benefit from this effort as we pursue the basic objective—the defense of the Nation.

What does it mean to managers . . . ?

The Changing Federal Service



by ROBERT E. HAMPTON, *Commissioner*
U.S. Civil Service Commission

A LOT HAS HAPPENED since 1950 when I first entered the Federal service. Among other things, we have been involved in hot wars and cold ones—from Korea and Berlin to Cuba and Vietnam. We have had to deal with complex domestic issues—from the challenge of automation and saturated airways to drug control and the conquest of space.

The hallmark of the 1950's was *change*—change so sweeping that relatively few people in the world were left untouched or unaffected.

Our Nation changed, perhaps more than most countries, for we were on the leading edge of advancing technology.

The Federal service—that cross section of the Nation charged with carrying out national programs and goals—changed too. Yet many of us *in the service* have had little opportunity to assemble and analyze the facts and figures of change on a Government-wide basis, and even less opportunity to draw useful conclusions from the data.

For the manager—the man who has program responsibility and responsibility for the work of others—lack of awareness of change could be a serious handicap, especially if any of his plans and day-to-day decisions are based on assumptions about the work force and the Federal environment that are no longer valid.

For a statistical measure of change, we have been studying information from various Government-wide occupational surveys. We have looked backward in time, outward to other sources of information, and forward for a glimpse into the future in an effort to assess changes in the Federal service.

So for the Federal manager, I should like to discuss

some of our findings, within the context of what these changes may mean to him.

CHANGING MISSIONS

The Federal Government, both the largest employer and biggest business in the United States, is probably the least static and the most accustomed to change.

General Motors may decide to build a Chevy II, U.S. Steel may decide to build a fully automated rolling mill, and AT&T may decide to invest in a communications satellite. In each instance, change is necessitated in the organization: maybe more, fewer, or different types of employees are needed. New facilities may have to be built, and a tooling-up process planned. But even such changes as these are relatively minor in comparison with those that may grow out of decisions involving national goals and Government programs—such as the decision to send a man to the moon.

As in industry, Government's new or modified mission ordinarily necessitates change to carry it out. The most obvious changes can be seen in reorganizations, consolidations, and the establishment of new agencies—or in agencies that are being phased out or abolished.

Since many Federal functions cut across agency lines, there is a much better yardstick for measuring overall change: shifts in the composition of the work force.

We all know from experience that Government operations have become increasingly complex, and that this has caused us to recruit more highly specialized people and fewer with only general or limited skills.

The question is: *How many more and how many fewer?* For here is our best measurement of change.

CHANGING WORK FORCE

At the outset let's consider one of the most widespread misconceptions about the Federal service—that it is "an army of clerks."

There *was* a time, the records show, when the Federal service was composed predominantly of clerks doing routine and repetitive chores. Although that time has long since passed, today we still find ourselves similarly described by writers and commentators. One would gather from their pronouncements that of today's 2,489,000 Federal employees, *at least* a million must be general clerks at the bottom of the pay scale.

GONE: THE ARMY OF CLERKS

Let's look at the facts. The latest available figures for grade levels in clerical occupations are from the Commission's 1961 white-collar survey. At that time we had around 28,000 general clerical employees in grades GS–1 through GS–4. But think about this: we had *more* employees in physical science occupations and nearly *four times that many* in engineering!

Before heading for the higher specialties, let's consider change as it relates to the most basic ingredient of governments everywhere—the typist. In 1947 the Federal Government employed around 85,000 typists. Since that time, overall Federal employment has increased about 25 percent. If the demand for typists had increased accordingly, today we would employ 106,250. We now employ around 78,000, an actual decrease of 8 percent, or 26 percent *less* than might have been expected. The introduction into many Government offices of quick-copy equipment has substantially reduced the demand for persons whose skills do not extend beyond the ability to type.

Let's move on to other fields. In 1947 we had around 14,000 employees whose work involved the operation of bookkeeping machines, calculating machines, and card-punch, sorting, and tabulating machines. Today they have increased to some 22,000—but a new dimension has been added: The computer.

In 1947 we had almost no employees engaged in computer operations, because computers as we know them today did not exist. It was not until 1951 that the Government's first commercially procured computer, the Univac I, was installed in the Bureau of the Census.

PRIME USER OF COMPUTER OUTPUT

Since then the Federal Government has become the Nation's prime user of automatic data processing equipment. Today we employ some 10,300 computer employees, and many of the 22,000 machine-operating employees mentioned above now work in direct support of the Government's ADP and computer systems, accounting for their rapid increase.

The computer has influenced other occupations, too. New and perhaps computer-sired occupations have emerged—operations research, for example, already accounting for some 400 Federal employees.

However, this new and growing beanstalk to higher levels of achievement hasn't lifted everything along with it. It has contributed to a reduction in the Government's need for subprofessional mathematical and statistical employees. Today we have 9,403 subprofessionals in these fields—a drop of nearly 32 percent since we obtained our first computer in 1951. On the other hand, the number of professional mathematicians has doubled since 1951 to a total of 2,532, and professional statisticians have increased nearly 13 percent to a total of 2,569.

DRAMATIC CHANGES IN SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

In science and engineering, changes have been exceedingly dramatic. Today we employ 34,320 in the physical sciences—an increase of 21 percent since 1957. Physics is up 60 percent since 1957, and chemistry has grown 29 percent. In the biological sciences we employ 36,917, an increase

of 28 percent since 1957.

The rate of change in engineering has been even greater than in the sciences. Today we employ 116,854 in engineering occupations—an increase of 67 percent since 1957! Support functions, too, in engineering and other professional fields have increased. Today we employ *more technicians than typists:* 78,326 technicians and 78,105 typists.

MORE TECHNICIANS THAN TYPISTS

WE SEE THEN that advancing technology has caused drastic changes in the composition of the work force, especially in science and engineering. However, all changes cannot be laid solely at technology's doorstep.

A growing America has increased the demand for Government services, so today we have more air traffic controllers, more social security claims examiners, more accounting and budget workers, more post office city carriers, and more specialists in business and industry. Congress has passed new laws, many of which have provided new or expanded services to the public, so today we have more food and drug inspectors, more highway engineers, and more persons employed in the field of education.

GREATER DEMAND FOR SERVICES—

Today there are more laws to interpret, administer, and enforce; a greater regulatory workload on agencies; and more claims to examine. And so we find that legal and kindred occupations in Government have increased 28 percent since 1957, to a total of 38,084.

Congress has provided increased medical research and public health services, and our war veterans are growing older and more in need of Government medical assistance with each passing year. Consequently we find that medical officers, mostly in the VA and Public Health Service, have increased 15 percent since 1957, to a total of 11,202.

However, the Federal service has *not* "exploded" with the population. Since 1956 our population has increased 13 percent, while Federal employment increased *less than 5 percent.* In 1956, about 14 people out of every thousand in the population worked for the Federal Government. Today the number has dropped to 13 out of every thousand. This means that a larger Government workload is being handled by proportionately fewer employees.

—BUT RELATIVELY FEWER WORKERS

LET'S LOOK AT another kind of change: white-collar in relation to blue-collar employment.

In recent years there has been a definite nationwide trend toward increased white-collar employment and a consequent decrease in blue-collar work. The same is true in the Federal service—further evidence of increasing specialization.

MORE WHITE-COLLAR, FEWER BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

Since 1951 Federal white-collar employment increased 28 percent (excluding jobs found only in Post Office, such as postmaster and city carrier): from 905,902 to 1,157,594, as shown in the 1962 occupational survey. Blue-collar work decreased 19 percent between 1951 and 1962: from 834,947 to 680,064.

ANOTHER MEASURE: ESCALATION

Another way of measuring change in the Federal service is through changes in grade structure. In recent years the Government's grade structure has generally shifted upward, or has "escalated."

Many factors can cause escalation, but certainly the trend toward greater need for more professional and technical skills and a declining need for lower-grade jobs involving routine and repetitive tasks has been a primary cause.

Some jobs have been filled at a higher level. For example, to recruit more high quality college graduates, we requested and obtained legislative authority to hire outstanding graduates at the GS–7 level instead of GS–5. And we have had to revise many of our position classification standards to reflect the fact that substantial and significant changes in individual occupations had already taken place.

In 1962, as compared with 1958, there were proportionately more people in the upper grades and proportionately fewer people in the lower grades, while the middle grades remained relatively stable. Increases by grade level were:

GS–11's increased by 24,368.
GS–12's increased by 22,000.
GS–13's increased by 17,747.
GS–14's increased by 9,108.
GS–15's increased by 4,656.

Employment increases by occupational group from 1957 to 1962 were largely in fields such as science, engineering, and business and industry, in which the journeyman grade is high. This definitely is one of the major causes of our grade escalation.

INCREASE IN PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYEES

As in the rest of the economy, the Federal service showed a marked increase from 1954 to 1962 in the proportion of professional employees. Professionals increased 40 percent while other occupations increased only 17 percent during this period.

In 1954 the median grade in the Federal service was

GS–5; by 1961 it had gone up to GS–6; and by 1963 it had advanced to GS–7.

THE NATIONAL PICTURE

FOR THE MOST PART we have looked at some of the occupational changes in the Federal service. However, the service is not a closed society: it acts, reacts, and interacts within the context of society at large. Many of the changes previously discussed have also taken place in business and industry.

Technology has spread its problem-solving yet problem-generating mantle everywhere, and the nationwide occupational shift has been toward increased specialization.

Labor Department's new "Manpower Report of the President," March 1964, gives us our most comprehensive look at the national picture. Every Federal manager should give high priority to studying this revealing document.

Let me quote a few passages from the section, "Where We Stand."

"The past year was one of excellent economic growth. . . . The gross national product was boosted by $30 billion so that it now is more than $600 billion a year. . . . Employment was increased by almost a million . . . but unemployment persisted grimly despite 1963's strong economic advance. . . .

"The labor force expanded by 1.1 million last year and annual increases are expected to be even greater in the future. The largest increases are occurring among those under age 25 and among married women. . . .

"Productivity and demand shifts, meanwhile, are changing our requirements for workers.

—Manpower needs are shrinking in declining industries and in those where new machines and methods are replacing workers faster than new jobs are being created by new demand. . . .

—But more manpower, with skills not always possessed by displaced workers or by new entrants into the labor force, is required by other industries. In 1963 four-fifths of the new increase in jobs was in service, trade, and State and local government activities.

—Occupationally, unskilled jobs are declining in importance. Demand is expanding most in professional and technical, clerical, and service occupations. Requirements for education and training for employment are increasing steadily. . . .

"Imbalances flowing from these trends require our attention. Current and prospective shortages of needed skills must be better identified if we are to prevent any drag on our economic growth. . . ."

THE SIGNS POINT STRONGLY to continuing change as long as our national population grows, as long as technology continues its forward rush, and as long as a line can be drawn between the free world and the Communist camp.

What do such changes mean to the Federal manager?

One thing they surely mean is that he had better not ignore them, for the implications are strong in many of his operating areas. With our focus on people and the personnel-management aspects of change, let's look at some of the implications.

Recruiting and Hiring

Every manager's prime resource is people: Those explicitly needed for program operation.

Indications are strong that the manager will have to give increased attention to his recruiting needs; the kinds of skills he needs most will be increasingly harder to find; and competition will be intense.

At present there seems to be some confusion as to how the Government's recently announced personnel cuts and employment ceilings can serve, or are consistent with, the national manpower policy which is to create *more* jobs and qualified workers to fill them.

I think we can agree that economy in Government is definitely good for the Nation, and that at all times we should strive to carry out the missions of our organizations with the fewest possible employees. I think we can agree, too, that an employee's salary should always represent the *best* use of that much tax money for the overall good of the Nation.

Personnel cutbacks *will* make the manager's job tougher but they will not put him out of the recruiting business (see "The Quality Recruit—Today's Best Bargain," page 10). Each year we lose around 300,000 employees through resignations, retirements, removals, reductions in force, and deaths. Even with the programed cuts, we will still have to recruit more than 250,000 new workers a year to fill jobs that become vacant.

About 15,000 new employees will have to be recruited from the college campus—not in 1970, but *next year*. 1970 will be a different story. With each passing year we will need to recruit a higher percentage of college graduates in relation to our total hiring—with *increased emphasis* on getting the Ph. D. Increasing specialization offers no other alternative.

(Continued—see FEDERAL SERVICE, p. 21.)

The Quality Recruit—

Today's Best Bargain

by ROBERT MELLO, *Director*
College Relations and Recruitment
U.S. Civil Service Commission

WHEN PRESIDENT JOHNSON declared his determination to reverse the trend toward growth in Government's work force, front-page newspaper headlines screamed: "U.S. Hiring Freeze!"

The word spread quickly on the campuses and was taken as gospel not only by students and faculty members who counsel them on career choices, but also by some Federal managers and recruiters—who should have known better.

If the misconception were allowed to gain ground among students and college officials, Government's long-range recruitment efforts would suffer a serious setback. And it would be doubly destructive if Federal managers pushed the panic button and blocked the intake of promising young people who must be regularly recruited to assure that the career service will continue to meet the need for top talent at all levels in the years ahead.

True, there is surface inconsistency in a policy of prudence and economy, on the one hand, and a continuing drive to recruit thousands of new employees, on the other. But a look below the surface shows that the emphasis on economy makes a continuing quest for quality even more necessary. Paring the payroll will mean that fewer people will be recruited, but the goal of getting more work done with fewer hands underscores the need to make certain that those who are hired are the most able we can find.

The challenge to Federal managers and recruiters has been well stated by Civil Service Commission Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., who told a Civil Servant of the Year banquet gathering in St. Louis:

> "President Johnson has called upon all Federal departments and agencies to halt the rising trend in Government employment, and this will be done. There will, in fact, be a reduction in the Federal work force, brought about largely by leaving some vacant positions unfilled. But this doesn't mean that the Civil Service Commission is out of the hiring business. It means that the element of quality in selecting employees for the Federal service becomes more important than ever."

FOR THOSE WHO PREFER it by the numbers, let's look at the realities of recruitment needs in the light of the President's goals for reducing the work force. As the Nation's largest employer, the Government loses in the neighborhood of 300,000 employees a year through resignation, retirement, removal, reduction in force, and death. Thus, even with the lower personnel ceilings set by the President, Federal agencies will still have to hire something more than 250,000 new workers to take care of turnover. About 15,000 of the new hires will have to be recruited from the campus.

Still puzzling about the seeming inconsistency between the Presidential policy of personnel cutbacks and the practice of continuing recruitment? Then listen to no less an authority than the President himself. In a message of January 6, 1964, to college students considering their careers, President Johnson said:

> "As you deliberate upon the course of your own life, I sincerely hope you will give consideration to your country as employer and beneficiary of your abilities. The range of opportunities is broad. The prospects of rewarding careers have never been better. I urge you to consider the advantages and satisfactions that might be yours—and your country's—if you compete for a career in the Federal service."

We have only to look back to the late forties and early fifties to be reminded of the folly of cutting off career opportunities in Government for new college graduates. In the large-scale staff reductions that followed World War II and the Korean conflict, few graduates found employment in Federal service, and Uncle Sam's standing as a prospective employer reached a low ebb.

WAR ON POVERTY in Philadelphia's Urban Renewal Administration is being waged by two quality recruits: BERNARD B. FULTON, Jr., Deputy Regional Director (left), and JASON R. NATHAN, Regional Director (right). Warren P. Phelan, HHFA Regional Administrator, is shown in center.

GOVERNMENT'S COMEBACK on the campus has been a long, slow, hard pull. In recent years it has enjoyed some success in attracting a share of the best prospects, but only after having overhauled and modernized its recruitment procedures, raised starting pay and offered other career inducements, and intensified its efforts to seek out top talent.

The turning point was the introduction of the Federal-Service Entrance Examination in 1955. This revolutionary recruitment technique of a single examination for a variety of occupational specialties, coupled with a campaign of continuing campus contacts by Commission and agency recruiters, has been paying impressive dividends. The FSEE has become well known and increasingly popular, while Federal recruiters and recruiting programs have gained in stature and effectiveness to help the Government meet the intense competition of private employers.

Exempted from the FSEE umbrella were such scarce-skill occupations as engineering and the physical sciences, in which the competition among employers was already keen. Separate examinations continued to be held for these occupations. As the FSEE program was mounted, a companion campaign evolved among agencies requiring increasing numbers of people to man growing research and development activities. Although hard put to match industry's offerings dollar for dollar, agencies became adept in developing and carrying out aggressive on-campus recruitment programs that began to show encouraging results.

The early fruits of Government's aggressive effort to seek out quality candidates on the campus have already amply demonstrated the wisdom of providing a steady flow of talent into the career service and of maintaining the continuity of campus contacts in periods of minimum as well as maximum recruiting needs.

In its first 8 years of operation, the FSEE drew more than a million applications and resulted in career appointments for more than 57,000 of those who gained eligibility in the general test and of an additional 1,600 who qualified in the tough management-intern option.

Many of the first FSEE recruits—particularly those who qualified for management internships—have since advanced through the career ranks to key positions in programs of vital importance, through which the Federal service is moving to meet the pressing needs of social change and the challenge of rapidly developing technology. And there is reasonable assurance that the additional thousands in the pipeline, aided by training and development opportunities, will move along to be ready when their call comes to advance to higher rungs on the career ladder.

REPRESENTATIVE OF THE TOP TALENT tapped by the management-intern option of the FSEE and readied for assignments of importance in meeting major challenges of present programs are two recruits of the midfifties in the Housing and Home Finance Agency. Bernard B. Fulton, Jr., was recruited as a field representative in 1956 after taking a B.A. in government at Dartmouth and an M.A. in public administration at the Maxwell School of Syracuse University. Jason R. Nathan, a Phi Beta Kappa who did undergraduate work at Syracuse and took a law degree magna cum laude at Harvard Law School, entered the career service in 1957 as a management analyst.

Since then Jay has moved through assignments as field representative, area coordinator, deputy regional director, and finally regional director for the Urban Renewal Administration in Philadelphia—from grade 7 to 15 in 7 years. Bernie has risen rapidly, too, serving today as Jay's deputy in making war on poverty on the urban renewal front. The two young executives have responsibility for a $1 billion program covering nearly 500 projects in about 200 cities in the Middle Atlantic States. Not only are both sold on their challenging assignments, but they also share enthusiasm for the intern program.

AMONG THE MORE THAN 100 outstanding graduates the Office of the Secretary of Defense has recruited through the FSEE's management-intern option is James L. Woods. Although he has celebrated only eight birthdays (he was born on February 29, 1932), Woods has a phenomenal record for one so young. A native of Columbus, Ohio, he received a B.A. summa cum laude in political science from Ohio State University in 1953. His undergraduate accomplishments included Phi Beta Kappa and the Political Science Department Award. Following 2 years of active duty with the Army, he returned to the University to obtain an M.A. in political science and, with the help of a 1-year fellowship, completed residence requirements for a Ph. D. at Cornell University.

In July 1960, after passing the FSEE, Jim began his internship in the Office of the Secretary of Defense. Today he is making a significant contribution to the conduct of the military aid program as a GS–13 staff officer in the Military Assistance Planning Division, following preparatory assignments that took him to Japan, Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines, and many other foreign lands.

THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR has also had notable success in its recruitment and utilization of management interns. The careers of Alfred Zuck and Edward Waters are illustrative.

Zuck joined the department as an intern in 1958, after taking an A.B. in political science magna cum laude from Franklin and Marshall College and an M.A. in public administration from the Maxwell School, where he became a member of Phi Beta Kappa. His first assignment was in the Office of the Secretary and he worked in the Division of Finance. By June 1962 he had advanced to grade 13 as an administrative officer in the Division of Program and Budget Evaluation, and the following year he was promoted to grade 14 and assigned as a supervisory budget analyst in the Office of Financial and Management Services. He now has full responsibility for the budgetary process in support of the Manpower Retraining Program.

Waters entered the program in 1960 after receiving a B.A. in economics at Pennsylvania State and doing graduate work at Cornell in economics, statistics, and labor relations. He has advanced to grade 13 as a labor economist in the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Division, responsible for planning and developing major projects designed to appraise the impact of automation and technical changes on workers.

FOR EACH COMPETITOR fortunate enough to qualify for the relatively few internships each year, about 35 able young people have made the general FSEE the gateway to opportunity in Federal service. And the record of their performance has likewise been impressive.

OTHER EXAMPLES of quality recruits: DR. MAXINE SINGER (left), Chemist, National Institutes of Health. Ph. D., Yale, 1956. Entered service, February 1958. Now a GS–13, she works on chemistry of heredity. Recently won national honor society Iota Sigma Pi Research Award given every 3 years to outstanding young woman chemist. DR. LEROY L. CONSTANTIN (right), Surgeon, Public Health Service. M.D., Columbia, 1959. Entered service, July 1961. Winner in 1962 of American College of Cardiology "Young Investigator's Award" for excellence and originality of research in cardiovascular field.

A MAJOR USER of the talented people produced through FSEE competition has been the Social Security Administration, which has employed 11,265 to date. Among them is Nancy Ann Williams, who was selected following receipt of a B.S. in commerce from Ohio University in 1959. Under the quality-graduate formula, she qualified as a grade 7 claims representative trainee and was assigned to the Midtown New York City District Office. Her performance and promise won her more responsible assignments as claims representative, field representative, staff assistant for program, and staff assistant for management—and advancement to grade 11. Her present responsibilities include review of district office expenditures and the recruitment of claims representative trainees for the region.

AMONG THE MORE RECENT FSEE's recruited by the Department of Agriculture is Robert B. Lane, an outstanding graduate of North Carolina A&T College and American University. He finished in the top 1 percent among 1962 FSEE competitors and was hired as a grade 7 placement officer in the Office of Management Services last July. He compiled an enviable academic record in acquiring a B.S. degree in general science and an M.A. in international organization. He won the Forensic key four times as an outstanding debater, received the Chicago Tribune Medal for outstanding performance in military science, was elected one of the 10 outstanding seniors of the year in 1956, and had the equivalent of a straight A average throughout his years in college. His talents make him well suited for his present work in recruiting, placement, and employee-management relations.

Other FSEE recruits are employed in a wide range of assignments, helping their agencies to attack the urgent

problems President Johnson outlined in his budget message in January—the all-out war on poverty, all aspects of national defense, assistance to underdeveloped nations, the exploration of space and the manned lunar flight program, development and conservation of natural resources, housing and community development, and a variety of other important programs at home and abroad.

THE FSEE ACCOUNTS for only about half of the able young people recruited from the campus each year. The others are attracted through separately announced examinations in such professional fields as physical science, engineering, accounting, and a few others. Like their FSEE counterparts, the talented people recruited through these examinations can recount equally impressive success stories.

George W. (Bill) Aitken found his way to a career in Federal service by way of the student-trainee program. During his undergraduate years at the University of Notre Dame, he worked two summers as an engineering student trainee for General Services Administration. On graduation as a mechanical engineer in 1958, he accepted a career appointment with GSA, entered a planned development program in air-conditioning and ventilating systems, and last August became a top air-conditioning specialist at grade 13 in the Public Buildings Service.

Paul M. Carren is an outstanding product of an accounting and auditing examination that effected his transition from Marquette University to a grade 5 training assignment with the Army Audit Agency in Milwaukee. Within 19 months he had advanced to grade 9. He then took an overseas assignment that lasted over 4 years, during which he advanced to a grade 12 auditor-in-charge assignment. Back in the United States, he received yet another promotion to supervisory auditor in the San Francisco District Office. Last June, the 32-year-old Carren accepted an assignment at headquarters of the Army Audit Agency as audit program director at grade 14.

Graduating second in his class with a degree in mechanical engineering from the University of South Carolina in 1959, Walter W. Guy was appointed at grade 7 under the quality-graduate formula and began his career with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration at Langley Field, Va., as an equipment design engineer. He transferred to the Manned Spacecraft Center at Houston in 1961 and is now a grade 13 supervisory aerospace engineer heading the Systems Analysis Group of the Environmental Control Systems Section of the Center's Crew Systems Division. Under his supervision, no less than eight significant papers on the technical aspects of the manned spacecraft program have been produced, and he has coauthored two others rated of "considerable significance" to NASA's mission.

The challenges of the space race likewise attracted William Mattson to NASA following his graduation from Youngstown University with a degree in mechanical engineering in 1963. His outstanding undergraduate record won him appointment at grade 7 with the Lewis Research Center at Cleveland where he has shown considerable promise in conducting experimental research on tungsten fuel elements. His work is part of a project aimed at design of advanced test facilities with the end objective of eliminating certain problems from expensive and complex nuclear rocket tests to be conducted later.

THESE ARE BUT A FEW of the tens of thousands of able young people who have been drawn to the Federal career service in a steady stream since Federal recruiters began to comb the campus in a continuing talent search—recruiting not just for needs of the moment, but to provide a pool of employees with potential in a range of specialties to make their way up career ladders to positions of responsibility in the future.

A decade of determined effort by the Government has paid off in the competition for quality on the campus. Our recruiters have cemented contacts with placement officials and faculty members. We have gradually developed an awareness and appreciation among students of the opportunities to be found in Federal service. We have earned for the merit system, founded on the principle of open competition, a measure of understanding of its logic. We are making our mark in this most important manpower marketplace.

In our efforts to effect economies and meet the President's objectives, we must not fall prey to the easy answer of closing off opportunities for college students whose interest in the career service has been stirred. We must keep the door open.

We live in an era of social, economic, scientific, and technological change in which Government must be ready to respond to sudden and unprecedented challenges at a greatly accelerated rate. A vast range of new issues demands a new vitality in public administration. Each day brings new problems requiring greater emphasis on better management and a greater contribution by the people in the public service. The problems we face will not become easier of solution, nor will our workload decrease. We face the certainty of further technological developments that will increase our need for the best talent in the country. To meet this need an investment in the future is required. We can make no sounder investment than in assuring a steady intake of talent to be nurtured and developed to meet the tests that are sure to come in the future.

THE CHALLENGE TO FEDERAL MANAGERS, appointing officers, and recruiters is clear—to sustain a recruiting program calculated to attract the most able and achieve the economy and excellence demanded of the Federal service. The future of the Federal service may well rest on our decision to prove that today's—and tomorrow's—best bargain is the quality recruit.

Civil Servants at Work:

BACKSTAGE AT SMITHSONIAN

by JOHN C. EWERS, *Assistant Director*
Museum of History and Technology
Smithsonian Institution

IN 1963 MORE THAN 10 million men, women, and children visited the Smithsonian Institution's complex of museums on the Mall in Washington—more than three times the number of visitors to those same buildings 10 years earlier. This phenomenal increase reflects the growing interest in the revitalized galleries that have been opened to the public since an exhibits modernization program for the Smithsonian Institution was authorized by the Congress in 1954.

In this brief period in the Smithsonian Institution's 118-year history, a majority of the exhibition halls in the Museum of Natural History have been completely modernized with displays that incorporate recent advances in the natural sciences and anthropology. The new Museum of History and Technology, which was opened on January 23 of this year, welcomed nearly half a million visitors to its first 10 completed halls during its first month of operation.

The success of this large-scale visual education program has resulted from close cooperation between the Smithsonian Institution's able staff of scientists and historians and its corps of talented exhibits specialists. The latter have been recruited, and in many cases trained, to perform the great variety of tasks required to plan and to produce attractive, informative, and authoritative displays in the fields of armed forces and civil history, physical sciences, engineering, and technology, as well as anthropology and natural history.

Few of the millions of visitors to the Smithsonian Institution are aware of the many types of talents and skills employed in creating effective museum exhibits. Few of them have had the opportunity to go behind the scenes to see the exhibits specialists at work transforming ideas for exhibits into completed displays.

DESIGNING MUSEUM EXHIBITS

An exhibits specialist, in the person of a hall designer, begins to play an important role in the early stages of the development of an exhibition hall. He first consults with the scientist or historian who is the subject-matter specialist and knows the museum's collections in the field to be interpreted in the hall, as well as the

kinds of exhibits needed to present a well-rounded, comprehensive visual interpretation of that field. Together they consider the major themes to be presented, their logical or chronological relationships, and how they can best be broken down into meaningful units of exhibition cases, explanatory panels, or free-standing objects. The designer then draws up an exhibition hall layout which shows precisely and to scale the location and size of each unit within the hall assigned to this particular subject.

Obviously, an exhibition of railroad locomotives or automobiles presents different problems in hall design from a display of costumes, home furnishings, or coins. Designing a hall of dinosaurs and fossil reptiles differs from planning one of gems and minerals. In fact, each hall presents different challenges in the organization of subject matter, selection of specimens, and specification of fixtures, lighting, wall finishes, and color schemes. Part of the hall designer's problem also involves the planning of intriguing vistas and a change of pace in the sizes and types of exhibits to stimulate the visitor's interest and to avoid monotony.

Once the layout of the hall is agreed upon and the construction of the cases and fixtures begun, detailed plans for the contents of each unit must be perfected. A graphic designer prepares scale drawings showing the placement of each item—specimen, map, diagram, illustration, label, etc.—in each case or other unit in the hall. In order to do this he must know the size, color, and purpose of each item listed in the scientist's or historian's written specification of the contents of each unit. Specimens serve as symbols in interpreting ideas. So the designer must be aware of the relationship of each element in an exhibit to the central theme of that unit in order to perfect his composition—whether the subject is the nesting habits of birds, Indian uses of birchbark canoes, the perfection of the wooden truss in bridge building, or the development of the microscope as an aid to medical research.

RESTORING SPECIMENS

Other exhibits specialists possessed of mechanical skills and knowledge of the uses and finishing of materials are experts in restoring specimens for exhibition. Thanks to the abilities of such specialists, a metal planer of the 1840's found in an abandoned shop in New England was painstakingly cleaned, its missing parts precisely fabricated, and placed in working condition as one of the operating machines in a mid-19th century machine shop in the Hall of Tools. With the same care and concern for detailed accuracy, old coaches and autos, farm implements, railway engines, clocks, scientific apparatus, and other specimens of historical interest are restored to the condition they were in when in use generations ago.

PREPARING AND PRODUCING EXHIBITS

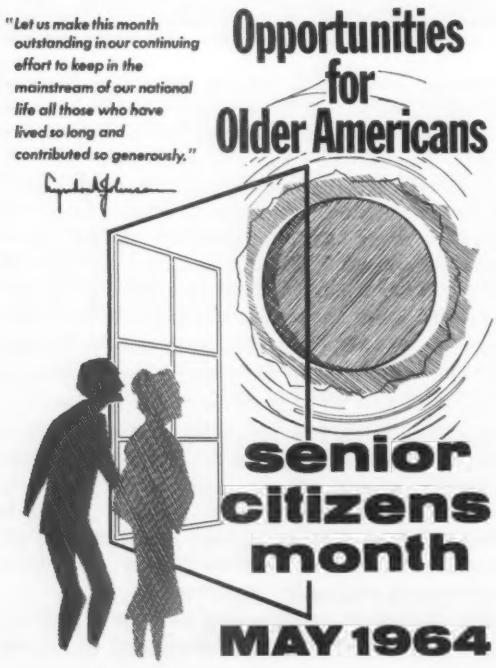
Other exhibits specialists have proven themselves to be ingenious in preparing natural history materials. At the Smithsonian Institution they have pioneered in the use of freeze-dry as an effective method for preserving small mammals, birds, reptiles, and amphibians for exhibition. These specimens retain the lifelike poses in which they are positioned before they are dehydrated at below-zero temperatures, and the dehydrated tissues are not subject to decay. Exhibits specialists have successfully employed bacteria (gas gangrene germs) to clean skeletal materials for exhibits of comparative osteology. Preparators have found many uses for light, durable plastics as replacements for heavier or more fragile materials previously used in museums for making casts or models of perishable plants or animals. An especially noteworthy accomplishment has been the creation of a 94-feet-long, life-size replica of a blue whale in fiberglass. In the same hall visitors may see accurate larger-than-life-size plastic models of small sea creatures created in the exhibits laboratory.

Specialists in exhibits production at the Smithsonian Institution have pioneered in adapting the silkscreen process for reproducing clear labels and illustrations in several colors directly upon case backgrounds and panels. These silkscreened labels eliminate space-cluttering and distracting label cards, and the illustrations replace monotonously rectangular photographs.

The illustrations accompanying this article portray a few of the other types of work performed by the ver-

Smithsonian's new Museum of History and Technology

satile, highly skilled exhibits specialists at the Smithsonian Institution. These men and women find satisfaction in creating exhibits for the instruction and enjoyment of the millions of visitors to the museums on the Mall in Washington. They take pride in contributing toward the fulfillment of the Smithsonian Institution's objectives—"the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men."


"Let us make this month outstanding in our continuing effort to keep in the mainstream of our national life all those who have lived so long and contributed so generously."
Opportunities for Older Americans
senior citizens month
MAY 1964

TRAINING DIGEST

UNIVERSITY ROLE

Training programs should be used to keep Government career employees' skills and knowledges current in a rapidly changing world, said Federal officials attending a Commission-sponsored conference in January on the role of universities in career development. Led by Chairman Macy, the group decided upon an agenda for future action which included:

- Agencies should consider setting aside a "pipeline" of money and personnel spaces for long-term training.
- Employees who have considerable off-campus study should be considered where practicable for assignments to university campuses in residence to facilitate degree-oriented study.
- Federal scientists should be encouraged to write texts to cover frontiers of knowledge.
- The Commission should encourage agency sharing of off-campus study centers.
- The Commission should search for a sound basis for agency action in selecting resources in and out of Government to meet training needs.
- Government should encourage universities to bring Federal employees to their campuses for lectures and should invite university scientists to accept short-term assignments in Federal laboratories.
- When career employees are sent to long-term training it should generally be done at career transition points.

A report on the meeting is being prepared.

AF CONTROLS SUPPORT TRAINING

Manpower controls that limit the number of positions that can be filled have an adverse effect on programs for the training of new recruits and cooperative students, and on formal work-study programs, an Air Force task force reported last year. A new method, *man-year* controls, has been adopted which goes a long way toward giving Washington and field employee development officers the flexibility they need for these short-term training programs.

In the new program, activities are granted a fixed number of man-years for a fiscal year rather than a fixed number of spaces. An activity can, therefore, vary the number of positions it fills monthly so long as (1) in the fiscal year the total number of man-years stays within the established limit and (2) the total number of spaces is periodically brought down to an established figure.

This new program, AF officials report, is being used

to great advantage for the support of cooperative training and formal work-study programs.

TELELECTURE SERVICE

A telephone system which permits a speaker in one city to address a group in another city or even several groups in different cities and to answer questions raised by his listeners is now available to Federal agencies in a number of GSA regional offices. The system, called telelecture, has been used, for example, to permit a well-known social scientist to talk from Washington, D.C., to a group of Federal executives on the west coast.

At the time we go to press, the telelecture service is available in and between Chicago, Dallas, San Francisco, and Washington. GSA expects to have the service available in all its regional offices by the end of this year, which will add Boston, New York, Atlanta, Kansas City, Denver, and Auburn (Seattle) to the circuits.

These services are available from any Bell company but can be arranged at special low rates through GSA and the Federal Telecommunications System.

FEDERAL TRAINER WINS AWARD

Mrs. Elizabeth F. Messer, Assistant to the Deputy Director of the Bureau of Retirement and Insurance, U.S. Civil Service Commission, was one of the six women receiving the Federal Woman's Award this year (see page 24). Mrs. Messer, well known in training circles, was cited for her outstanding achievements in personnel training, including training to indoctrinate more than 2 million Federal employees in the basic elements of the health benefits program. She also worked with congressional committees when the Government Employees Training Act was being drafted in 1957–58.

KINGS POINT AND CAMBRIDGE GATE

The Federal Government's Executive Seminar Center, Kings Point, and the Centre for Administrative Studies, Cambridge Gate, England, have a number of similarities, a recent study by the Civil Service Commission discloses. The British program provides nine courses totaling 14 weeks plus 7 weeks of extension work for specialists in the field of economics. Kings Point has a series of ten 2-week courses.

Cambridge Gate stresses such matters as the structure and operation of government, the structure and operation of industry and business enterprise, science and technology, international affairs, and economics and statistics. The Kings Point program stresses an overview of our Federal structure, the formulation and implementation of public policy, technological development, national security, Federal-State relations, and management. (KP does not cover the structure of private business or statistics. It has less on economics.)

The faculties of the two schools are remarkably parallel. Both have three resident, full-time staff members, and both use knowledgeable persons from government, private industry, and universities. Both have classes with from 35 to 40 participants. One major difference: KP is a resident program whereas the CAS is nonresident.

The two programs differ most in the selection of participants. The English program, required of all Assistant Principals who have completed 2 years' employment in their Departments, is for relatively new employees. The American program is for experienced Government executives in grades GS–13 to 16 who are nominated by the agencies.

TRAINING NOTES

Long-term training, over 120 days in length, is provided by the military and foreign services to about 1 percent of their personnel whereas civilian agencies send only about one-tenth of 1 percent of their employees to such training, a study by the Commission recently disclosed. Commission staff suggested that the rapid obsolescence of technological and administrative knowledge shows a need for more long-term training for career employees.

Annual reviews of training needs are made on automatic data processing equipment at White Sands Missile Range, N. Mex. The system also furnishes training cost data to managers to be used in determining training priorities.

The Administrator, Veterans Administration, and 24 of his immediate subordinates are taking at their own expense two after-hours credit courses conducted by George Washington University in agency space: Advanced Administrative Management and Administration in Government.

Management training in public administration is being provided more and more frequently to government officials in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey. How best to do this was discussed at a conference sponsored by the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) at Lahore, Pakistan, in January. The United Nations is sponsoring a conference in May at Addis Ababa for public administration institutes at which this topic will again be discussed.

"Classrooms in the Military," a publication of Teachers College, Columbia University, reports that the military service education, one of the best in the world, has considerable carryover to civilian jobs.

Over 17,500 agency employees participated in Commission-conducted training during fiscal 1963. Of that number, 5,009 were trained in Washington and 12,507 in the field. About one-fourth of the courses dealt with personnel administration.

	Personnel management	*Other management*
Washington	801	3,761
Field	4,208	8,746

—Ross Pollock

How Awards Relate to Behavioral Science

by JOHN D. ROTH, *Director*
Federal Incentive Awards Program
U.S. Civil Service Commission

BEHAVIORAL SCIENTISTS have come up with such a variety and volume of material on motivation and incentives that one is almost led to conclude that there is no desire for agreement. Dissent is known to be a factor in building individual reputations, and this may account for the tendency against agreement and the preference for subjective concepts, definitions, and interpretations.

On the other hand, the theory of motivation advanced by Dr. Abraham H. Maslow of Brandeis University in his book, *Motivation and Personality* (Harpers, 1954), is gaining stature. Dr. Maslow's theories have an influential and persuasive supporter in Dr. Douglas McGregor, professor of industrial management, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who used them in a management context as a principal basis for his views designated as theory "X" and theory "Y" in his widely known and useful book, *The Human Side of Enterprise.*

HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Dr. Maslow, on the basis of extensive clinical observation, theorized that man is motivated by his fundamental needs, which can be subdivided into five broad categories. Further, these categories can be viewed in a general way as organized in a series of levels—a hierarchy of importance. The higher-level needs become activated as lower-level needs become relatively satisfied. A crucial factor is the concept that a satisfied need no longer serves as a principal motivator of behavior. The five broad categories of needs are:

—Self-fulfillment
—Ego needs
—Social needs
—Safety needs
—Physiological needs.

At the lowest (or basic) level, the *physiological needs,* such as air, food, shelter, rest, are preeminent in importance when they are thwarted. Man lives for bread alone when there is no bread. On the other hand, when hunger is no threat, it ceases to be an important motivator.

At the next level are the *safety needs,* which are defined as the need for protection against danger, threat, deprivation. Man wants to be able to plan ahead for the future with a feeling of safety and security. He wants to know that there are safeguards he can call upon for help to protect him—such as insurance, health benefits, retirement, grievance procedures, etc.

In our modern life the first two levels of needs are reasonably satisfied for those who are employed—but their influence can be observed when rumors arise about a reduction in force or about relocation of an organization from one city to another.

The third level—*social needs*—relates to man's wanting to have pleasant social interaction with others, to be part of a group, to be accepted as meeting the group's norms. This level of needs does have a significant impact on day-to-day motivation of people at the worksite.

At the fourth level, the *ego needs* are the desires of all people for evidence of esteem and recognition for their good qualities. This level is never completely

NEW INCENTIVE AWARDS FILM

A new 12-minute, 16-mm color motion picture, "Accent on Excellence," was released recently for showing in all Government agencies. Federal employees now have an opportunity to attend—through the medium of this film—a stellar career service event, the presentation at the White House of the 1963 President's Awards for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service . . . and to gain a better appreciation of the high regard in which they are held by the President.

Release of the film followed a special preview showing held by the Civil Service Commission for the award winners, their families, and top-level officials of Government agencies. Agency officials agreed that the film could be used to good advantage as an introduction to award ceremonies, in orientation of new employees, as an inspirational segment of management training courses, and in connection with open house ceremonies.

Field establishments may borrow "Accent on Excellence" by sending a request to any U.S. Civil Service Commission regional office. Agencies in the Washington, D.C., area should send their requests to the Incentive Awards Office, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D.C.

satisfied and is definitely a motivator at the worksite.

Finally, the fifth level—*self-fulfillment*—offers unlimited motivation. It is never satisfied because it relates to man's desire to use all of his talents and powers and to grow and develop and be creative.

Professor Maslow suggests that the various levels overlap somewhat, and that the higher level needs emerge before the lower are 100 percent satisfied. Only as an illustration, he theorizes that an average worker might be 85 percent satisfied in physiological needs, 70 percent satisfied in safety needs, 50 percent in social needs, 40 percent in ego needs, and 10 percent in self-fulfillment.

THE RELATION TO AWARDS

How does an effective awards program relate to this theory of motivation? The cash award, of course, contributes to some extent to physiological needs, or perhaps to safety needs, depending on how it is spent, but since these needs are already partially met, the cash alone may not be the most important part of the award. What about effects on the higher level needs?

An award for an achievement that is considered by an employee's associates to be a superior product should contribute to satisfaction of social needs because the ceremony provides a specific setting in which the individual receives the congratulations of his peers as well as his superiors.

The well-selected award certainly makes a very direct contribution to satisfaction of ego needs when it is granted in such a way that it exemplifies sincere esteem and appreciation from management to the individual.

The awards system makes a positive contribution to the self-fulfillment needs by providing an organized system in which the employee is encouraged to utilize creative talents, initiative, and drive beyond the immediate requirements of his job.

HYGIENIC FACTORS VERSUS MOTIVATORS

As another approach Dr. Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman in their book, *The Motivation to Work,* present various factors in the work situation and, based on their research, categorize some as "satisfiers" and others as "dissatisfiers." The dissatisfiers are described as factors which do not really increase or strengthen motivation by their presence, but do produce dissatisfaction when they are absent or deteriorate. They are compared to the hygiene factors necessary to prevent physical illness. Their presence does not add to a person's health, but their absence may detract from it. These factors include good administrative practices, competent supervision, fair pay, satisfactory physical working conditions, job security, and benefits. Dr. Herzberg does not draw a parallel between the hygiene factors and Dr. Maslow's first two levels of needs, but nevertheless there is similarity.

The satisfiers or "motivators" identified by Dr. Herzberg are:

—Achievement
—Recognition
—The work itself
—Responsibility
—Advancement and growth.

The similarity between these items and Dr. Maslow's self-fulfillment and ego needs is readily apparent. Dr. Herzberg generalizes that the hygiene needs must be continually satisfied without any expectation of increased satisfaction or positive job returns. On the other hand, the motivators are used to provide satisfaction and job motivation for the employee. The relation of the awards program to the "recognition" factor identified by Dr. Herzberg is obvious. Also, the awards program can provide the psychic income that reinforces the other motivators listed.

CONCLUSION

Drs. Maslow and Herzberg have made it apparent why the use of awards has persisted from the days of the Greek laurel wreath to today's granting of the *magna cum laude* to the scholar, a bonus to the business executive, merit pay for the professional, and a wide variety of other awards for exceptional achievement.

But more importantly they can help Federal managers and supervisors understand how to select and provide the right incentive at the right time for the right people.

BOY SCOUTS James C. Adamson, left, and Thomas Y. Davies, III, present a medal to CSC Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., in Washington. Adamson and Davies were among the twelve Scouts selected to represent their respective regions in ceremonies marking the 54th anniversary of the Boy Scouts of America in Washington, February 7–13. Each Scout made a "Report to the Nation" on the progress of scouting in his region. Chairman Macy has urged greater participation in the Scouting program by Federal employees as a means to develop a higher appreciation of public service in the minds of outstanding youth.

LEGAL DECISIONS

RELEASE OF INFORMATION

In re Gurnsey, District Court, D.C., October 31, 1963. The Commission had found the petitioner to be unsuitable for Federal employment. He brought this proceeding in order to learn the names of the informants who had supplied the information on which the Commission based its finding, and the nature and details of the information. The court denied his petition, holding that the information he sought was absolutely privileged. The court stated: "The purpose of this doctrine is to make it possible for any citizen to come to governmental authorities and furnish confidential information to the Government. To compel the Government [to divulge this information] would be to discourage citizens from furnishing information to the Government. The governmental interest in matters of this kind is paramount." The case has been appealed to the Court of Appeals.

SUITABILITY—IMMORAL CONDUCT

Scott v. *Macy,* District Court, D.C., January 14, 1964. Plaintiff, an applicant for Federal employment, was rated ineligible by the Commission on the ground of immoral conduct (homosexuality). In attempting to have the Commission reversed by the court, he contended that the Commission's regulation which makes immoral conduct a disqualification of applicants is illegal and, in any event, homosexual activity is not immoral conduct. In an oral opinion the court held that the regulation was properly adopted by the Commission and, in the words of the court, "I further hold that homosexual conduct is immoral under present mores of our society and abhorrent to the majority of the people and I feel that the Civil Service Commission was justified in barring the employment of the plaintiff in this case because of evidence of homosexual conduct." The case has been appealed to the Court of Appeals.

RIGHT TO ANSWER PERSONALLY

Paterson v. *United States,* Court of Claims, July 12, 1963, and *Brownell* v. *United States,* Court of Claims, January 24, 1964. In these two cases, the Court of Claims continues the process of refining veterans' right to answer personally that it began in *Washington* v. *United States* and continued in *O'Brien* v. *United States* (see the *Journal,* Vol. 1, No. 4). The holding in the *Paterson* case, in the court's language, is this: "We hold that the right, as provided in section 14 of the Veterans' Preference Act, to answer charges 'personally' is not met by an appearance before investigators charged with the duty to develop the facts to substantiate the charges they, themselves, have drawn up, where the investigators are not supervisors of the employee being charged, nor even superior to him in the chain of command within the agency." In the *Brownell* case, plaintiff argued that, on the basis of the *Paterson* case, his removal was defective because he had not been accorded a personal interview by the head of his agency. The latter had designated a hearing committee as his delegate to hear the charges and to recommend final action; and the committee gave the plaintiff the opportunity to appear personally, which he chose not to exercise. The court said: "Nothing we said in that case [*Paterson*] indicates that an employee has any statutory right to appear personally before the head of the particular agency. We think that the requirement of a personal hearing was amply met in this case. The hearing committee, appointed by the Administrator, was not a prosecuting agency and, hence, the vice that we found in the procedure followed in *Paterson* is not present here."

RIGHT TO COUNSEL

Erenreich v. *United States,* Court of Claims, January 24, 1964. Plaintiff was removed for insubordination: failure to report for a discussion with her supervisors in regard to her whereabouts during working hours. She tried to persuade the court that the direction to report for the discussion was unlawful because she was not permitted to have counsel present at the discussion. This court had ruled in a 1959 case that failure to obey an unlawful order was not insubordination. The court ruled against her, stating: "The regulations of the Civil Service Commission and the agency prescribe the conditions under which employees may be represented by counsel or other person *after charges have been made;* they contain no provision for right to counsel in employer-employee supervisory discussions prior to notice of disciplinary action or adversary proceeding."

REMOVAL—CAUSE

On February 17, 1964, the Supreme Court granted a writ of certiorari in the case of *Dew* v. *Halaby* (see the *Journal,* Vol. 4, No. 1, and Vol. 2, No. 4). This is the case in which plaintiff contends that a removal based on preemployment conduct does not "promote the efficiency of the service." The case will probably not be argued in the Supreme Court until next year.

—John J. McCarthy

FEDERAL SERVICE—

(continued from page 9.)

Briefly, these factors point to the manager's need to:

—strengthen campus contacts and relations
—insist on quality across-the-board in hiring, with increased emphasis on a candidate's potential as well as current qualifications
—seek assistance of local educators when special courses or curricula are needed to update employee skills and to meet hiring needs
—insist on equal-employment opportunity as the backbone of efforts to select best qualified
—select and train as recruiters those employees who will project the best possible organizational image on the campus.

Training, Development, and Utilization

Skills shortages and continuing changes in technology will make it necessary for the Federal manager to become increasingly concerned and involved in employee training: more training for more employees, more course diversification, and with more top management interest, support, and expectations.

The shelves of the national manpower market will not be amply stocked with every skill you will be needing. So, what you can't recruit you will have to grow.

Take the computer programer, for example. Although educational institutions are beginning to provide courses in ADP and computer programing, they are not yet producing graduates who can walk into your computer room and go right to work. Some Federal agencies have been hiring bright, promising, and interested eligibles from the Federal-Service Entrance Examination registers (or from the management intern option), and have put them in their computer rooms as trainees.

In-service training, of course, is not something new. What *is new* is the increasing necessity for managers to use it on a planned basis to:

—minimize adverse impact of recruiting failures
—update skills of employees for increased utilization
—develop employee potential.

The Government Employees Training Act of 1958 was itself born of change, for changing conditions had produced important needs that could not be met in any other way. The act revolutionized Government training.

It gave legal sanction to and encouraged agencies to pool resources on a cost-shared basis for employee training. Today hundreds of courses are offered across the country on an interagency basis. More than 300 are offered in the Washington, D.C., area alone. We are also conducting more refresher training, or "skills retreading," for in many instances jobs are changing so fast they threaten to outstrip the incumbents. In addition, today more agencies are sending selected employees outside Government for needed training that is not offered on an in-house or interagency basis.

The Training Act has accelerated the establishment by educational institutions of off-campus study centers in areas of concentrated Federal employment. To date there are some 100 of these centers across the country, meeting many official training needs of adjoining Federal establishments, as well as the personally financed self-development needs of employees. Educational institutions have shown great willingness to set up off-campus centers where the need has been clearly identified—identified in many instances by Federal managers who have followed through to get such facilities established.

Certain trends are emerging on the training front:

—training courses are becoming longer (more 2-week courses and fewer 2-day ones)
—refresher training is increasing
—more broad-based training is being offered to develop employee potential
—off-campus study centers are proliferating
—management is showing greater interest in identifying training needs and in meeting them head on.

Training and development, of course, go hand in hand with employee utilization and productivity. The President has made clear that Federal agencies are expected to make strong and continuing efforts to achieve better manpower utilization and increased productivity. The emphasis, as well as the efforts, will have to increase, for these are not just nice words invented by the Bureau of the Budget or the Civil Service Commission—they are operating necessities.

Methods and procedures to achieve better utilization and productivity will probably become increasingly formalized as staff-line programs, followed up by closer audits and inspections. Training will be an inherent part of such programs.

Managers will become increasingly involved and increasingly held accountable. Just make sure that all training in your organization is clearly identified as the *best* means to a legitimate end. And then, pour it on in carefully measured amounts.

Readjustment Problems

Change always necessitates adjustment, especially human adjustment.

The President's Manpower Report states that the typical job of the future for production workers will probably be that of machine monitor, and that more and more the operator is becoming a skilled watchman, with functions

demanding patience, alertness to malfunctioning, a sense of responsibility for costly equipment, and a better educational background than was needed in the past by factory operatives. The report also points out that under some circumstances the same increased qualifications are required of clerical workers who are caught up in ADP or EDP operations.

Here we have to hark back to training, for extensive training is needed to make a machine monitor of the new breed from today's machine operator. Not all operators are equipped to become monitors, so they will either become surplus or will have to be retrained for other work.

Adjusting to these changes won't be easy for the manager or the employee. And adjustments won't be limited to employees in the subprofessional ranks. All workers—whether engineers, administrators, laborers, or clerks—face the possibility of occupational changes necessitating retraining and readjustment.

Employees, their unions, and management share a mutual and a legitimate interest in the effects of change on career employees. So far, automation has not resulted in a general tendency to reduce personnel. Rather, it has helped us to get more and faster results with essentially the same number of employees.

The dislocation and readjustment element we have encountered to date has been primarily the dislocation of skills rather than employees. However, automation of some operations has had an impact on employees, and some shining examples in Federal establishments across the country have emerged to illustrate how management can minimize individual hardship.

Few of today's Federal managers can expect to be immune to automation in their operating spheres. The best advice I can offer is for the manager—at the first strong sign that automation is in the offing—to begin immediate planning for it and to consult with his own top management, training officers, placement officers, officials of employee organizations, and the Civil Service Commission. We will work with you to make sure personnel regulations contain the necessary flexibilities to get your mission accomplished and to work out new rules as necessary. We can also fill you in more completely on the experience of others, in effecting the transition with minimum adverse effect on employees.

Management and Manpower

Here, for the manager, we find some of the strongest implications of change: longer-range and more formalized manpower planning.

This is reinforced by several factors:

—long-term supply-demand imbalance for many types of professional and highly skilled workers makes planning a must;

—Bureau of the Budget is already requiring some departments and agencies to submit program plans spelling out the use of money, manpower, and materials for the current budget year *plus* the next 3 years;

—many Federal agencies now have access to computer capability to process large quantities of data and to arrive at conclusions and projections more rapidly than ever before.

Add this up, extend it a little, and you get more and more managers involved in formal manpower planning. Fortunately, most managers are well seasoned in planning their work force, though most have dealt with it on a short-range and informal basis.

In the future, managers will have to provide considerably more documentation and justification when submitting staffing requests. They will have to show they have taken into full account factors such as:

—changes likely to occur in mission and organization
—budget allocations and other controls
—physical facilities
—lines of authority and supervision
—attrition (past and expected)
—employee training and utilization.

Manpower forecasting is a step beyond work force planning, and this will be new to most managers. It takes into *full account* the expected national supply of qualified workers in specific occupations at specific times. It projects and measures one's anticipated manpower needs against the expected national supply and estimates how many of each needed type of employee one can reasonably expect to get—and when. Thus a good manpower forecast can point up the need for major efforts to minimize the adverse impact of occupational shortages, or it can paint a more relaxed picture where the supply seems likely to fill one's expected needs.

Formalized and longer-range manpower planning will require more recordkeeping, such as running accounts on attrition by occupation and grade level, why the employee left, where he went, whether or not the vacancy was filled, how, and by whom. The manager's personnel office and headquarters office will want periodic staffing reports from him.

Neither work force planning nor manpower forecasting will call for clairvoyance on the part of the manager, but both will require a lot of spadework and *systematic, educated* "guesstimating."

THE CHANGING MANAGER

TODAY'S MANAGER is a highly skilled combination of many things. He manages people, money, and materials—and assures the proper combination and application of each to perform a given task.

But already he is pressured by change to become something more—innovator, management analyst, employee-management relations adviser, educator, and so forth.

He must look to his own self-development, but he can-

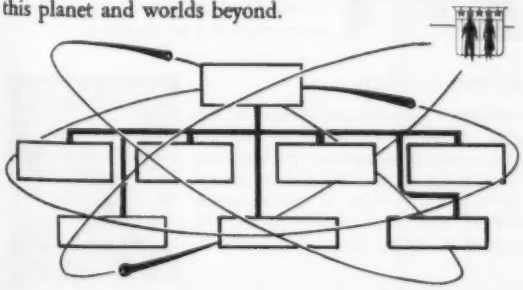
not make of himself all these things. The organization has to help.

About a year and a half ago, *Dun's Review* polled 300 top executives across the country with the question: "Which are the 10 best-managed companies in U.S. industry, and what is the most outstanding ability of each one?" In the 10 companies cited as best managed, six common threads ran brightly and clearly through their operations. One of them was: *"An active training program that keeps new managers continually pressing to the fore and established managers on their toes."* The other common characteristics had to do with abundant working capital, corporate structure, good communications, high executive salaries and employee benefits, and willingness to risk money on product research.

Government training programs for managers are definitely on the upswing but, generally speaking, they haven't yet reached the point where they keep "new managers continually pressing to the fore and established managers on their toes."

More and more, however, the Federal manager will find "timeout" called on him: timeout for skills retreading in a changing environment, and timeout to pursue broader knowledge, understanding, and a wider operating perspective. For, as the future rushes in upon him, he will be concerned increasingly with national purpose as well as national programs. He will be more concerned with people, especially his own: their motivational needs, performance incentives, utilization and productivity, job satisfactions and recognition, long-range potential, and career development. And he will become increasingly involved in the master-servant relationship between men and machines.

CHANGE IS NOT just the hallmark of our times—it has become our only constant. Like the environment in which we live, the changing Federal service is replete with challenges and opportunities that are unprecedented. The Federal manager must not allow himself to be jostled along or smothered by change. He must anticipate, plan for, and adjust to change. *He must take charge of change.* The stakes are tremendous in any terms we state them. The manager's vision and his capacity for innovation and leadership can have crucial effect on our world position, our power for peace, the attainment of national goals—even man's future on this planet and worlds beyond.



CSC CHECKLIST

A selection of recent CSC issuances that may be of special interest to agency management:

- Bulletin 316–1, 1964 Summer Employment:
  —announces changes in the Commission's regulations to prohibit nepotism in the competitive service. Specifically, it prohibits an agency from appointing a son or daughter of a civilian employee of that agency, or a son or daughter of a member of its uniformed service, to a position within the agency between May 1 and September 30, 1964.

- FPM Letter 339–4, Employment of the Mentally Retarded:
  —puts into effect the late President Kennedy's policy on the employment of the mentally retarded in positions in the Federal service "where they meet the necessary performance requirements or in positions where the performance requirements can be modified to take advantage of their abilities without detriment to the service."

- FPM Letter 339–5, Employment of Severely Handicapped Persons Who Have Demonstrated Ability To Perform Duties Under Temporary Appointments:
  —announces a new Schedule A authority which will permit the exception from competitive service of not more than 100 positions when filled by severely handicapped persons who, under temporary appointment, have demonstrated their ability to perform satisfactorily the duties of those positions.

- FPM Letter 571–17, Payment of Travel and Transportation Expenses Under Public Law 86–587; Additions to the List of Manpower Shortage:
  —adds hydrologists to the manpower shortage list and authorizes payment of travel and transportation to their first duty stations.

- FPM Letter 332–5, Extension of Paid Advertisement in Recruitment To Include Radio and Television:
  —authorizes agencies to use paid advertising on radio and TV stations when recruiting for shortage-category positions.

—Mary-Helen Emmons

FOURTH ANNUAL

Federal Woman's Award

PICTURED AT THE WHITE HOUSE with the President are: Mrs. Messer, Dr. Anderson, Dr. Blanch, Mrs. van Delden, Dr. Schwartz, and Miss Gifford.

FOR THEIR INFLUENCE on major Government programs and for personal qualities of leadership, judgment, and dedication to service, six Government career women received the Federal Woman's Award for 1964. The Awards were presented at a banquet in their honor on March 3 in Washington, D.C. Earlier that day they visited the White House, where they were presented to President Johnson by Mrs. Katie Louchheim, Deputy Assistant Secretary of State, who is Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Federal Woman's Award. In greeting the Award winners, the President said: "When I read your biographies, I was again impressed by the extraordinary range of opportunity the Government offers to talented women. . . . I intend to see that there is an even greater expansion of opportunities for women in the days ahead. . . . I believe a woman's place is not only in the home but in the House, the Senate, and throughout the Government service. We are very proud of you women doers."

MARGARET W. SCHWARTZ

Director, Office of Foreign Assets Control, Department of the Treasury—for her expert direction of a highly complex agency with responsibility for control of hundreds of millions of dollars in frozen foreign assets and enforcement of embargo regulations in the national interest.

ELIZABETH MESSER

Assistant to the Deputy Director, Bureau of Retirement and Insurance, U.S. Civil Service Commission—for her outstanding achievements in personnel training, research, and long-range planning, which have brought about significant improvements in the Federal personnel system.

GERTRUDE BLANCH

Air Force Scientist, Aerospace Research Laboratories, Wright-Patterson AFB, Department of the Air Force—for her brilliant career in applied mathematics research, and her outstanding leadership and unique personal achievements in the field of numerical analysis.

PATRICIA G. van DELDEN

Deputy Public Affairs Officer, Attaché of Embassy at Bonn, Germany, United States Information Agency—for her extraordinary success in directing information programs in foreign countries to promote a broader understanding of the United States, its culture, its people, its government, and its objectives.

EVELYN ANDERSON

Research Scientist, Life Sciences, Ames Research Center, National Aeronautics and Space Administration—for her distinguished achievements in endocrine research, and her pioneering studies of the response of the hypothalamus-pituitary gland system to the stresses man will meet in space.

SELENE GIFFORD

Assistant Commissioner, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior—for her exceptional contributions to the administration of community services for the welfare of the American Indians, and her dedication to the betterment of Indian life.

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Worth Noting *(Continued)*

IN NINE CITIES, separate fund-raising appeals by voluntary health and welfare agencies will be combined into a single drive for Federal employees on an experimental basis this fall, if agreement can be worked out with the united funds and chests in those cities. Agreement has already been reached with the National Health and International Service agencies.

Single-drive tests are scheduled for Dover, N.J.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Washington, D.C.; Macon, Ga.; San Antonio and Fort Worth, Tex.; Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.; and Bremerton, Wash. The United Givers Fund in Washington, D.C., has already extended enthusiastic support for such an experiment in the National Capital area.

The experiments are in response to widespread requests from employees and servicemen for a one-time giving arrangement, to reduce manpower costs to the Government in the present arrangement of two or three separate drives a year, and to make possible increased contributions through voluntary payroll withholding.

PRESIDENT JOHNSON'S memorandum of January 28 to department and agency heads calling attention to the 10th anniversary of the incentive awards program is sparking additional agency emphasis on cost-cutting ideas from employees. In a follow-up message to all Defense employees, Deputy Secretary of Defense Vance cited past employee suggestion achievements and urged a "do better" effort this year. Postmaster General Gronouski called on all postal supervisors to more fully use the knowledge, ability, and creativity of employees in improving postal operations. VA and FAA have developed promotional kits for installation use in encouraging employee contributions to economy during the 10th anniversary year. Federal Maritime Commission has followed up a successful "Operation Know How" drive for man-on-the-job improvement ideas by focusing employee thinking on suggested solutions to specific problems-of-the-month.

EMPLOYEES AFFECTED by Public Law 88–284 have been given an opportunity between now and June 30 to change their health benefits registrations. During this period, an eligible employee who was not enrolled in a health benefits plan on March 17, 1964, may register to enroll, and an employee who was enrolled for "self only" on that date may change to a family enrollment in the same plan and option.

WINNERS of the National Civil Service League's Career Service Awards for 1964 are: John O. Crow, Deputy Commissioner, Bureau of Indian Affairs; Smith J. DeFrance, Director, Ames Research Center, NASA; William J. Driver, Deputy Administrator, Veterans Administration; U. Alexis Johnson, Deputy Under Secretary of State for Political Affairs; James S. Lay, Jr., Executive Secretary, U.S. Intelligence Board, CIA; Philip A. Loomis, Jr., General Counsel, Securities and Exchange Commission; Robert V. Murray, Chief of Police, District of Columbia; G. Lewis Schmidt, Assistant Director, U.S. Information Agency; F. Joachim Weyl, Deputy Chief, Office of Naval Research; and B. Frank White, Dallas Regional Commissioner, Internal Revenue Service. The awards are made annually "to encourage and recognize competence in the public service."

—Joseph E. Oglesby

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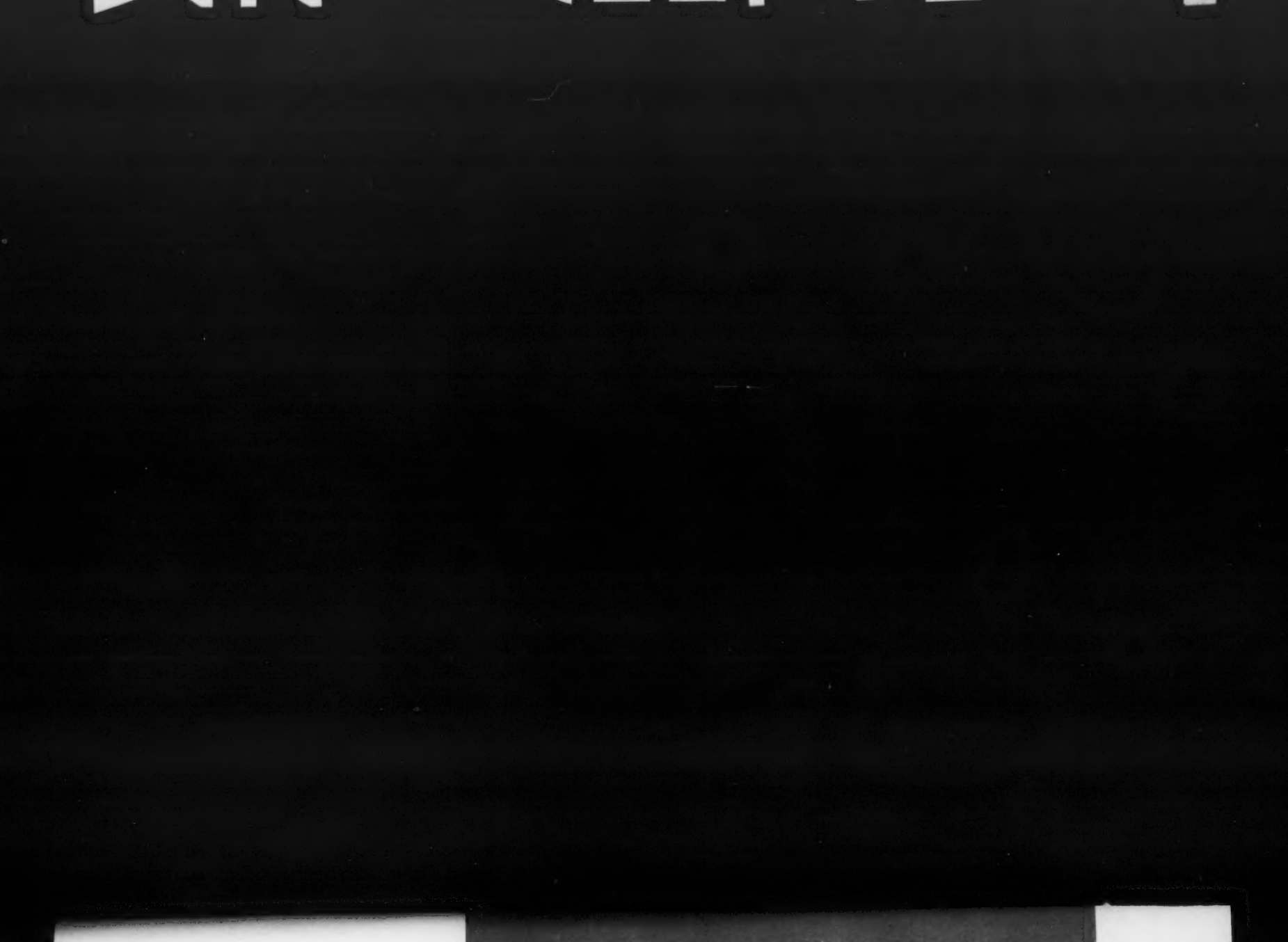
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